

# Historic Resources Survey Route 66 through Texas

---

Final Draft  
March 2005

## Historic Context

### **Prepared For:**

The Texas Historical Commission  
Friends of the Texas Historical Commission  
The National Park Service, Long Distance Trails Group Office

### **Prepared By:**

Monica Penick  
Consulting Architectural Historian  
Austin, Texas

### **Principal Authors:**

Monica Penick, Architectural Historian  
Gregory Smith, National Register Coordinator, THC

# Table of Contents

<b>US ROUTE 66 IN TEXAS - STATEMENT OF HISTORIC CONTEXT .....</b>	<b>3</b>
PRE-1926 ROADS .....	3
FORMATIVE YEARS: 1926-1932 .....	6
DEPRESSION AND THE WAR: 1933-1945 .....	6
POSTWAR YEARS: 1945-1960 .....	8
DEMISE OF THE ROUTE .....	8
<b>TEXAS ROUTE 66 ASSOCIATED PROPERTY TYPES .....</b>	<b>10</b>
PROPERTY TYPE: STRUCTURES .....	10
<i>Subtype: Roadbed</i> .....	10
<i>Subtype: Automobile Bridges</i> .....	12
<i>Subtype: Rail bridges / Grade Separations</i> .....	13
PROPERTY TYPE: GAS STATIONS .....	13
<i>Subtype: Curbside Station (1915 to ca. 1923):</i> .....	15
<i>Subtype: Shed (1909-1940):</i> .....	15
<i>Subtype: House (1920-1940)</i> .....	15
<i>Subtype: House with Canopy (1916-1940)</i> .....	15
<i>Subtype: House with Service Bays (1925-1940)</i> .....	16
<i>Subtype: Oblong Box (1930 -1960)</i> .....	16
<i>Subtype: Small box (1950- 1960s)</i> .....	17
<i>Subtype: Small box with canopy (after 1960-1970)</i> .....	17
<i>Subtype: Canopy with booth (1970s)</i> .....	17
PROPERTY TYPE: LODGING .....	18
<i>Subtype: Auto Camps (1910 – 1920)</i> .....	18
<i>Subtype: Tourist Homes</i> .....	19
<i>Subtype: Cabin camps</i> .....	19
<i>Subtype: Cottage Courts:</i> .....	20
<i>Subtype: Motor Courts</i> .....	20
<i>Subtype: Motel:</i> .....	21
<i>Subtype: Motor Inns</i> .....	21
<i>Subtype: Highway Hotels</i> .....	22
PROPERTY TYPE: EATING ESTABLISHMENTS .....	23
<i>Subtype: Early Quick Service Restaurants</i> .....	23
<i>Subtype: Tea Room</i> .....	24
<i>Subtype: Roadside Stand</i> .....	24
<i>Subtype: Highway Cafés</i> .....	25
<i>Subtype: Highway Coffee Shops</i> .....	25
<i>Subtype: Drive-Ins</i> .....	25
<i>Subtype: Outdoor Walk-up</i> .....	25
<i>Subtype: Indoor Walk-up</i> .....	25
<i>Subtype: Drive-through</i> .....	26
<i>Subtype: Other Roadside Restaurants:</i> .....	26
<b>SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY .....</b>	<b>27</b>

## **US Route 66 in Texas - Statement of Historic Context**

The significance of U.S. Highway 66, perhaps the best-known and most-often romanticized transportation corridor in the nation, lies at the intersection of the history of highway development, commerce, travel, tourism, and popular culture. Its importance is socio-cultural, economic, and to some extent, political. The interest (both historic and contemporary) in this highway and the subculture that it has spawned demonstrates that Route 66 was no ordinary road. While not the oldest or the longest transcontinental highway, Route 66 became the nation's first all-weather road, linking Chicago to Los Angeles.<sup>1</sup> The 2,400 extant miles (approximately) of Route 66 represent the development of a nationwide transportation infrastructure – notably marking every phase in the transition from dirt roads to super highways – and simultaneously underscore the economic and cultural effects of automobile travel. Ultimately, the story of Route 66 is the story of a newly mobile nation (and the responses to this lifestyle), of increasing geographic cohesion, and of the democratization of travel.

The period of significance for Route 66 in Texas extends from 1926 to 1970. While this period encompasses a number of seemingly disparate historical eras, the life of the highway provides an uninterrupted – though not unchanging – thread through nearly five decades. The events through which the thread weaves all have bearing on the story of the road and the people who traveled it. The following narrative explores the relationship of Route 66 to trends in transportation, commerce (tourism as a subset) and road-related architecture at the national, state and local level from its federal designation in 1926 to the closure of the last segment of Texas road in 1970.

### **Pre-1926 Roads**

U.S. Highway 66, like many other transcontinental roads, evolved from pre-existing routes such as the government-sponsored wagon road program initiated just before the Civil War. In order to facilitate both military and civilian travel and communication in the newly opening American west, the Army was commissioned to build a series of roads across the territories. These crude roads (often following trails established by trappers and traders) were little more than wagon tracks, but at the very least provided access to the frontier. During the mass migrations of the 1850s and 1860s, a frenzy begun during the California gold rush of 1849), many of these wagon trails were marked and significantly improved. Notably, many of these were used as mail routes).

Until the early 1900s, the primary sources of funding for rural road construction came from donation of land and rights-of-way by individual owners, from local property taxes, from poll fees and from statute labor.<sup>2</sup> In 1904, only 25 states permitted their counties or townships to issue bonds for road improvement, and these rights were generally exercised only to finance expensive endeavors, such as steel or concrete bridges.<sup>3</sup> Although the value of the land and labor were considerable, resources were often spread so thin that very few rural residents had access to adequate road service. Urban dwellers, on the other hand, had far better access to good local roads. Concentrated populations translated into substantial revenues from taxes and bond issues, which were in turn invested into infrastructure improvements – from sewers to streets.<sup>4</sup>

The obvious disparity between the quality of city streets and rural roads – and the resulting difficulty in traveling or shipping goods between the two – gave rise to a series of reform movements. Led by the “Good Roads Association,” (at first, coalitions of bicyclists, and later, automobilists), the earliest efforts at policy reform centered on the issue of funding, particularly the ability to levy road taxes. The Good Roads Movement further encouraged state legislatures to set up limited systems of state roads and to

---

<sup>1</sup> United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service. “Special Resource Study, Route 66.” 1995: 7.

<sup>2</sup> Under the statute labor system, all able bodied male citizens living along a road were required to work on the maintenance and repair of the road, expending a certain number of hours per year – or paying the equivalent cash value. See United States Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration. *America's Highways, 1776-1976*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976: 37.

<sup>3</sup> *America's Highways*, 37.

<sup>4</sup> City dwellers were in general exempt from statute labor; cities hired paid laborers and civil engineers (or someone with road building experience) to build and maintain their streets. *America's Highways*, 37.

establish state highway commissions that could encourage the passage of state legislation that would ensure good-quality roads equally accessible to urban and rural citizens. In 1894, Massachusetts became the first state to establish a State Highway Department; in 1917, Texas was one of the last three states in the union to enact some form of state aid.<sup>5</sup>

As the Good Roads Movement gained momentum and state chapters formed (Texas established its Good Roads Association in 1911),<sup>6</sup> supporters began to pressure Congress to pass legislation that would provide federal assistance for road building. During the last decade of the nineteenth century and into the first two decades of the twentieth century, supporters of the movement ceaselessly promoted road improvement through governmental involvement. As the numbers of privately owned automobiles steadily increased – Ford produced 1,599 automobiles a year in 1905 and 14,887 by 1907 – the existing road system became further stressed, sometimes to the point of physical ruin. Despite many inconveniences, leisure driving and long-distance automobile traveling continued to increase in popularity. In 1903, H. Nelson Jackson became the first person to travel by car from coast to coast, taking sixty-three days to travel from San Francisco to New York. With Jackson's accomplishment and Ford's continual improvement of the automobile, the idea of the cross-country motor tour was born.

Simultaneously, supporters of the Good Roads Movement – now motorists rather than bicyclists or wagoneers – began to lobby for a coast-to-coast highway. Under the National Old Trails Movement, an influential association of motorists encouraged the idea of a transcontinental highway and further advocated direct federal involvement in road construction, instead of federal aid to state agencies.

The concept of direct federal responsibility for road construction was eventually incorporated in the Federal Aid Road Act of 1916 (the *Shackelford Bill*).<sup>7</sup> This bill proposed that Congress appropriate \$25 million a year to aid in the construction and maintenance of post roads, out of which each state would receive at least \$65,000. The remainder of the funding would be allocated according to a compromise formula, figured according to area, population, and post road mileage.<sup>8</sup> The location and construction standards for these roads would be negotiated with each state, as would the type of surfacing, though the federal share of the project could not exceed 50%. To be eligible for federal aid, states were required to establish a state highway department to administer the federal funding. This was the impetus behind the formation of the Texas State Highway Department in 1917.

The passage of the Federal Highway Act of 1921 provided the legislative impetus and support for the further development of a vast federal highway system that would come to include U.S. Highway 66. As a successor to the earlier highway appropriations act of 1916, the 1921 legislation required that all states establish a state highway system of roads on which federal funds would be spent. No more than 7% of the roads could be designated as such, and of this 7%, almost half were required to be “interstate in character,”<sup>9</sup> thus encouraging the creation of a coherent network of state-to-state highways. This legislation in effect strengthened state highway departments by shifting the burden away from counties and townships, and requiring State Highway Department to oversee the construction and maintenance of federally-funded roads.

The passage of this legislation came an opportune moment in relation to growth of the automobile industry. The period from 1921 to 1929 was one of nationwide economic prosperity, and one in which the automobile industry increased its productivity, improved its product, and reduced its prices. In 1912, there were only 180,000 registered automobiles in the United States, or roughly one car for every 5,000 people.<sup>10</sup> In 1912, the number of vehicle registrations grew to just over one million. That number had more than

---

<sup>5</sup> Interestingly, the primary impetus to the creation of the Texas State Highway Department was to ensure the state's eligibility for financial assistance under the Federal Aid Highway Act of 1916. Despite the establishment of a Texas state highway department – and this was certainly the case in many other states – counties retained a good deal of the road-building responsibility. In 1932, the Texas State Highway department took full control, and no longer accepted county aid for road construction projects. Huddleston, John D. *Good Roads for Texas: A History of the Texas Highway Department, 1917-1947*. PhD dissertation, Texas A&M University, 1981.

<sup>6</sup> Huddleston 27.

<sup>7</sup> *America's Highways*, 84.

<sup>8</sup> *America's Highways*, 86.

<sup>9</sup> *America's Highways*, 108.

<sup>10</sup> “Special Resource Study, Route 66,” 12.

doubled by 1915. By 1925, just one year before the designation of Route 66, the total number of vehicle registrations increased to 19.95 million.<sup>11</sup> In Texas alone, there were 35,000 registered vehicles in 1912; in 1915, there were 40,000; in 1927, just after the designation of Route 66, there were 996,000 cars registered; and in 1932, the number had increased to 1.19 million, by far the largest registration count of all of the southern states.<sup>12</sup> With the increase in automobile ownership came an increase in travel and tourism, and cross-country motoring became a popular recreational activity. Automobiles affected the national economy in numerous ways. Production requirements, such as the need for steel, glass, rubber and fuel, created a large market. Mechanical needs, such as those for fuel and repair, were met by the thousands of garages and service stations that opened in this decade. Travel and tourism became an industry in itself, and garages, tourist facilities, eating establishments, helped fuel an already booming economy. The proliferation of automobiles had negative effects as well. Traffic accidents and fatalities tripled in the 1920s,<sup>13</sup> and traffic congestion itself became a marked problem. The sheer volume of vehicles on the road increased the wear on the road surfaces, and subsequently led to a larger demand for improved highways – a demand to which the federal government responded early on.

The development of the American highway system, and Route 66 in particular, was not, however, the sole province of the federal government. Certainly, states, counties and communities across the nation provided funds, labor and other support for the emerging road system. Individuals and members of the Good Roads Movement had their own vested interests in promoting major transportation thoroughfares. Cyrus Avery of Tulsa, Oklahoma (commonly called the “Father of Route 66”) and John Woodruff of Springfield, Missouri were among the first major promoters of a “modern,” all-weather, surfaced highway connecting Chicago to Los Angeles. Avery, elected as Oklahoma’s first State Highway Commissioner in 1923, was elected president of the Associated Highways Association of America, and in 1924 was appointed as a “consulting highway specialist” to the twenty-one member board appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture to select roads for the national network of highways. In 1925, Avery and the rest of the committee began to piece together the U.S. Highway System, with the goal of making travel easy. More than 250 national road clubs lobbied for their designated trails to be included, and Avery himself lobbied for a Chicago-to-Los Angeles route that would pass through Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. These lobbying and organizational efforts were finally realized with the passage of comprehensive highway legislation in 1925, and the implementation of the numbering system for America’s roads.<sup>14</sup>

On November 11, 1926, a committee of federal and state highway officials met in North Carolina to authorize the selected highway routes in all forty-eight states, including what would become Route 66. Following the official designation of U.S. Highway 66 in 1926, Avery recommended that the road be designated as “The Main Street of America” for use on commercial brochures, postcards, and maps.<sup>15</sup> Together with John Woodruff, Avery organized the National U.S. 66 Highway Association; in addition, each of the eight states through which Route 66 passed formed its own U.S. Highway 66 Association in efforts to endorse each region. From its earliest inception, Route 66 was well-promoted, well-supported and well-traveled. In 1926, only 800 miles of the approximately 2,500-mile route was paved; however, only a decade later, the goal of an all-season paved highway was for the most part realized.

Route 66, was for the most part, an assignment of a federal number to an existing network of state-managed roads, most of which were in poor condition.<sup>16</sup> The extension of the highway (and with it, federal funding) into the rural areas of the west not only allowed greater access to these developing territories, but

---

<sup>11</sup> *America’s Highways*, 109.

<sup>12</sup> Huddleston 58. These numbers are available from the U.S. bureau of Public Roads and the *Blue Book of Southern Progress*.

<sup>13</sup> For instance, the number of highway fatalities in 1918 was 10,723; in 1929, the total reached 31,215. *America’s Highways*, 115.

<sup>14</sup> This system was based on a grid in which principal north-south roads would end in the number “1” or “5” and principal east-west roads would end in “0”. Lesser roads would be assigned numbers in between based on their location. The numerical designation “66” was assigned to the Chicago-Los Angeles route in 1926; although the road’s number did not end in a zero, it was at that time considered one of the major east-west arteries of transportation.

<sup>15</sup> See the History of Route 66, <http://xroads.virginia.edu/~UG02/carney/kicks.html>.

<sup>16</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 12.

allowed greater ability to improve the physical aspects of this access. Federal funding, although still on a matching grant basis, aided in the maintenance and eventual paving of vast stretches of the road. These improved roads eventually connected important nodes of trade and tourism, and slowly began to connect the Midwest and the west with the rest of the nation. Texas, however, was perhaps an exception to this model. Because the route traversed the Panhandle – the tip of a very large state, Route 66 provided less access to major cities and perhaps less incentive for settlement. In 1926, the largest cities in Texas were San Antonio, Houston, and Dallas, none of which were within any proximity to Route 66. Even today, the population of the Panhandle and its largest city of Amarillo is around one-third of the population of Austin, the state’s capital.<sup>17</sup>

### **Formative Years: 1926-1932**

In contrast to other early highways, such as the Lincoln and the Dixie, Route 66 followed a roughly diagonal route. Because Route 66 was laid over a number of existing state, county and local roads, it took on an occasionally meandering path that took in hundreds of predominantly rural communities across Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. Not only was the improved route between rural areas and cities important for farmers transporting produce, but the longer stretches were significant for trucking and interstate commerce. Because of its inherent flexibility, by 1930, trucking came to rival the railroad as a dominant means of shipping. Route 66 was particularly appealing to the burgeoning trucking industry because it traversed temperate prairie lands and the southwest desert. While nature provided a predominantly flat terrain, forward-looking highway designers strove to make Route 66 “modern” by reducing the number of curves, widening lanes, and ensuring that the road surface (and its maintenance crews) could attain all-weather capability.

Until 1933, the responsibility to improve existing highways fell almost exclusively on individual states. The more assertive and financially prepared states were able to meet the challenge, while others – including Texas – struggled to keep their roads passable.<sup>18</sup> Initial improvements to the Route 66 system had cost state agencies an estimated \$22,000 per mile. These funds were applied to grading, re-grading (or a form of maintenance known as “dragging”) and surfacing. In 1929, Illinois boasted that all of its portions of Route 66 were paved, and a Texaco road report noted that the road was fully paved in Kansas, 66% paved in Missouri, and 25% in Oklahoma. The 1200-mile stretch from Texas to California remained unimproved. Until the early 1930s, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona and southeast California together had only about 64.1 miles of paved highway along Route 66.<sup>19</sup>

### **Depression and the War: 1933-1945**

Federal commitment to the improvement of the highway system increased with the Depression and the national appeal for emergency relief funding. An estimated 210,000 people migrated along Route 66 to California to escape the Dust Bowl, although less than 16,000 of these refugees stayed permanently.<sup>20</sup> Certainly for a large number of emigrants, however, Route 66 symbolized the “road to opportunity.”<sup>21</sup> In his 1939 novel *The Grapes of Wrath*, John Steinbeck immortalized Route 66 as the “Mother Road,” and his epic treatment of mass migration lent itself to a specific perception of the road’s early role in American cultural and economic history.

While the plight and the subsequent movement of the Dust Bowlers has been well publicized, less is known about importance of highway to those who “opted to eke out their living within the devastated

---

<sup>17</sup> Census numbers available at the Texas State Data Center and Office of the State Demographer. Online access, <http://txsdc.tamu.edu/>.

<sup>18</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 13.

<sup>19</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 13.

<sup>20</sup> See also James Gregory, 1989. His study notes that less than 8% of dust bowlers remained in California, and the entire state population only increased about 22% in the decade between 1930 and 1940. Regardless of the permanent effects on population shifts, an unprecedented number of travelers took to the road in the decade immediate preceding World War I.

<sup>21</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 13.

economies of Kansas, Oklahoma, West Texas, and New Mexico.”<sup>22</sup> Aside from supporting various road-side businesses, the road itself provided ample opportunity for economic support. Because Route 66 was linked to President Frank D. Roosevelt’s New Deal program for work relief and economic recovery, road improvements and maintenance work became a central responsibility of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) and the Works Project Administration (WPA). From 1933 to 1938, thousands of unemployed men worked as laborers in road gangs. As a result of this concerted effort, the Chicago to Los Angeles highway was reported as “continually paved” in 1938.<sup>23</sup> According to the National Park Service’s Special Resource Study, “Route 66 affected more Americans on federal work relief than people who used it during the famous exodus to California.”<sup>24</sup>

In the early 1940s, the development and improvement of Route 66 became central to the nation’s military and defense efforts. As early as 1922, the Army had designated roads important to national defense (shown on the “Pershing Map”). These roads typically corresponded with the states’ 7% selection to be included in the Federal-aid highway system, thus soon had the triple duty of providing adequate service for industry, commerce and military. In 1939 (shortly after the Germans seized Czechoslovakia and prepared to invade Poland), the War Department – with an eye towards national defense – reevaluated its strategic highway map, and immediately ordered the Public Roads Administration to survey and assess the conditions of these key transportation arteries. Surveys revealed that despite standards set by the Federal-aid system, many of the federally funded roads were in poor condition and many of the bridges could not safely support the weight of military transport vehicles. The need to remedy the deficiencies in the existing highway system increased dramatically as the armed services began expanding its bases, airfields, and other defense-related establishments. In part because of its geographic isolation and in part because of its mild climate, the War Department targeted the western United States as ideal for military training.

At the outset of World War I, several key military bases were established near Route 66 in Missouri, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. While the need to prepare for war was felt with some urgency, the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the subsequent need for rapid military mobilization underscored the necessity for systematic network of highways. The War Department’s immediate expropriation of the nation’s railways not only left a transportation vacuum in the West, but placed a considerable amount of pressure on the road systems. At least 50% of all defense-related products were shipped via truck to their overseas shipping points, many of these along Route 66. Congress asked that states and counties begin work on the strategic road system, both to secure defense positions and to provide reliable access to military installations. Many states and counties could not bear the financial burden of such dramatic increases in highway traffic, so again (as in the Depression) the Works Progress Administration was called upon, primarily to keep traffic moving and avert “paralysis” of defense installations.<sup>25</sup> In 1941, Congress passed the Defense Highway Act in order to provide federal funding for the necessary defense-related highway improvement projects.<sup>26</sup>

Although the onset of the war provided certain benefits for the developing highway system, material shortages, labor shortages, and maintenance delays (particularly on non-defense related stretches of road) had negative effects on the “highway boom” that had begun in 1921. In addition, the automobile itself – and with it, the leisure traveler – faced new difficulties. Auto manufacturers suffered critical shortages of steel, glass, and rubber during the war years, and many plants had converted to the manufacture of tanks, aircraft, ordnance and troop transports. Notably, the number of new cars produced dropped 3.7 million in 1941 to 610 in 1943.<sup>27</sup> Large trucks, on the other hand, were still produced and served as the mainstay for the shipping industry.

American highways, and Route 66 in particular, helped facilitate “the single greatest wartime manpower mobilization in the history of the nation.”<sup>28</sup> Roads were not only viewed as crucial for national defense, but were key factors in the preparation for overseas military activity. Highways both served the

---

<sup>22</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 14.

<sup>23</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 14.

<sup>24</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 14.

<sup>25</sup> *America’s Highways*, 144.

<sup>26</sup> *America’s Highways*, 144.

<sup>27</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 14.

<sup>28</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 14.

military forces directly (as in providing access to training grounds) and indirectly in its service to defense-related industries. As the National Park Service Study points out, the westward migration (from the northeast to the Pacific Coast states in particular) related to World War I was estimated at five times larger than that of the great Dust Bowl migration. In the early 1940s, approximately one million people relocated (many of them permanently) to help with new war and defense related industries that were centered in the west.<sup>29</sup>

## **Postwar years: 1945-1960**

After World War II, Americans were more mobile than ever. Thousands of military men who had trained in California, Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas found the mild climate and relaxed culture of the southwest agreeable. Upon their return from the war, many of these soldiers abandoned their “snow belt” homes for the “sunbelt.” Route 66 played a major part in the relocation of many postwar emigrants. Census data shows that growth along the route itself ranged from 40% in New Mexico to 74% in Arizona. California grew the most, and claimed half the population of the West between 1950 and 1980.<sup>30</sup>

The vast westward movement along the nation’s highways that began in the 1930s provided an unprecedented opportunity for roadside commerce. The immediate requirements of even the poorest of travelers were immediately apparent: availability of gas, automobile service, lodging, and food were of primary concern. As New Deal work relief programs provided employment on the road in the 1930s and bolstered local economies, the appearance of road-related businesses such as tourist courts, gas stations, and cafés promised economic stability after the road’s completion. Military uses of the highway during wartime certainly ensured the early success of roadside businesses, and the new tourism industry of the postwar decades gave rise to “modern” facilities that hinted at long-term economic prosperity. The evolution of these facilities – often resulting in unique types and forms of roadside architecture – is at the heart of the cultural and economic significance of Route 66. These roadside facilities, while not necessarily unique to Route 66, were the tourist court and later the motel, the filling station that was later equipped with a full line of automotive services, cafés and diners that catered to families on the move, and various roadside recreational attractions.

## **Demise of the Route**

Heavy use of the highway system since World War II (both by trucks during the war and automobile tourists in the immediate postwar years) placed an ongoing physical strain on existing roads. Relentless traffic had caused serious degradation, and the majority of roads were “functionally obsolete” because of their narrow paved widths and “antiquated structural features.”<sup>31</sup> Emergency road building techniques developed during World War II – such as the use of wooden rather than steel or concrete bridges, the lack of steel reinforcement in concrete structures, and the absence of asphalt and tar on paved surfaces – did not prove lasting, and by the mid-1950s, thousands of miles of road had significantly deteriorated.

The Federal Aid Highway act of 1956 provided a comprehensive financial plan to underwrite cost of improvements to the national interstate and defense highway system. This act significantly impacted Route 66, and eventually led to its obsolescence. In accordance with the terms of the legislation, the segment of U.S. 66 running west from Oklahoma City, through the Texas Panhandle, to New Mexico, northern Arizona to Barstow, California, would be replaced by Interstate 40. By 1960, each of the states along the original Route 66 expended from \$14 million to \$20 million to construct their portions of the Interstate (designed to accommodate 1975 traffic projections).<sup>32</sup>

By 1970, the remaining segments of the original Route 66 were replaced by two modern four-way highways: Interstate 55 between Chicago and St Louis and Interstate 44 from St Louis to Oklahoma City.

---

<sup>29</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 14.

<sup>30</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 15.

<sup>31</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 15.

<sup>32</sup> Special Resource Study Route 66, 17.



On June 26, 1979, the American Association of State Highways and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) accepted the recommendation to eliminate the designation of Route 66. The committee noted that “US 66 markings no longer served as a through-state guide to tourists, but in fact generated confusion because the route coincided with interstate designations over much of its length.” Although federal distinction was removed, many states recognized the historical value of the highway and pledged to preserve some symbol of the historic highway with signs for ‘Old U.S. 66.’

## **Texas Route 66 Associated Property Types**

Each historic property surveyed as part of the “Historic Resources Survey: Route 66 through Texas” was categorized according to information gathered during fieldwork and archival research. These categorizations were based on the property’s form and function during the Route 66 Period of Significance (1926-1970). Specific Types and Subtypes were determined according to precedent set by other states that have already completed Route 66 Historic Resource Surveys (i.e., New Mexico), and generally fall into the following six property types (with subtypes within each major type): structures (including roads and bridges), gas stations, eating establishments, lodging, and buildings associated with general commercial use. The following pages include a description of these property types, with particular emphasis on evolution of both form and function. We have also assessed the particular relevance of each property type to Route 66, and its significance within the general context of the road. Lastly, we have provided some guidance for determining the degree of integrity necessary for representatives of each property type to be listed on the National Register of Historic Places.

### **Property Type: Structures**

The most prominent type of structure recorded by this survey was the historic Route 66 roadbed itself. The category of “Structures” also includes bridges, culverts, road markers, foundations and building ruins, signs, railroad grade separations and other objects that appear to be related to the historic context of Route 66.

#### ***Subtype: Roadbed***

**Description:** From its designation in 1926, Route 66 in Texas was continuously altered, upgraded and rerouted. The growing use of the automobile as a means of transportation for both commerce and leisure increased the demand for improved roads. According to the 1931 AAA Guide, Texas had 194.7 miles of Route 66. The National Park Service “Special Resource Study, Route 66” indicates that there were at least 185 miles of drivable road in 1994.<sup>33</sup> In 2002, the drivable distance was approximately 178 miles.

There are two subtypes of roadbed extant in Texas: abandoned roadbed and in-use segments of road. Abandoned roadbed – both unpaved and paved – can be seen in several counties across the state. Notable sections of abandoned Route 66 include a segment of paved road just west of the town of McLean, as well as unpaved segments on private property (currently owned by Delbert Trew) in Gray county, unpaved segments to the north of the Interstate 40 access road west of Amarillo, and sections of unexplored unpaved segments following the rail track in other parts of Oldham county. The original route from just west of Amarillo to Vega exists as a barely visible cut in the landscape just to the north of the north access road to I40. Bridges, culverts, and other associated features remain in places and have been documented. The function and relevance of these features has not yet been explored, though archival research might uncover further information.

The majority of Route 66 through Texas, particularly paved alignments, is extant and still in use. Existing road segments include two-lane dirt road, two-lane paved road, two-lane paved road with median (only in Glenrio), and four-lane paved road. The drivable portions of Route 66 (91.4% of the original length of road) primarily exist as frontage roads for Interstate 40, business routes through towns and cities, and rural segments of county or farm-to-market roads. A very small length of these roads cross private property and thus remain inaccessible to the public (these are in Gray county between Jericho and Alanreed, and in Oldham county). Only a few segments of road retain historic integrity – these include the stretch of abandoned pavement just west of McLean, the segment of road to the east of Conway, and the remarkably intact segment of road through Glenrio. Because of frequent widening and, regrading, and resurfacings, not to mention the intrusion of I40, most drivable segments (both paved and unpaved) have not been recommended as eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Only three such locations have been recommended (Property 65-CO-0, road segment leading east into Conway; Property

---

<sup>33</sup> National Park Service Special Resource Study: Route 66. July 1995. Chart appears on page 57

375-AM-0, road segment leading from Highway 1925 to Amarillo Airport and as a contributing element in the potential historic district through Glenrio).

Route 66 was re-aligned numerous times between 1926 and its final decommissioning upon the completion of I40. Major road improvement projects were implemented in the 1930s and 1940s, which included the straightening curves, bypass of certain towns, and re-routings through some communities. The most significant changes occurred in Amarillo. Over the lifespan of Route 66, Amarillo hosted three separate alignments. The earliest alignment followed Southwest 9<sup>th</sup> Ave to Bushland, to Southwest 6<sup>th</sup> Avenue, Fillmore, and Amarillo Boulevard to Triangle Boulevard to FM 2575 running east of town (which bisected what is now the Amarillo Airport). In 1953, the bypass route was straightened to eliminate traffic on 9<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> Avenues, and Route 66 was realigned to follow Amarillo Boulevard on the west edge of town. In 1957, presumably to accommodate the construction of the municipal airport, the route was diverted from Triangle Boulevard and FM 2575 to follow Amarillo Boulevard East to FM 1912 (where it then headed south to rejoin FM 2575. 1956, Route 66 bypassed downtown Amarillo.

**Significance:** Route 66 is significant not only as part of the first effort to numerically designate and federalize highways in the United States, but as one of the first major transcontinental transportation routes from Chicago to Los Angeles. Route 66 continued to function as a major transportation route for both trade and leisure travel from 1926 to 1956 when the Federal Interstate Highway Act was passed. In Texas, as in many of the states through which Route 66 passes, the life of the road extended past the mid-1950s well in the 1970s when Interstate 40 subsumed the old route and bypassed many small towns that had been dependent on Route 66 to generate commerce.

Although Texas was one of the last states to complete paving of Route 66, the road still served as a significant transportation artery through the Panhandle. It served military, farming, cross-country shipping of goods, Dust Bowl emigrants, and finally, it provided a means of automobile-related leisure travel and recreation.

Route 66 was decertified in 1985 and replaced by Interstate 40, but evidence of the earlier road remains. Former portions of Texas Route 66 became the access roads for I40, or in cases where I40 did not parallel old Route 66, the roads were turned back to the care of the county road departments. The roadway and its associated structures are significant in that they offer material evidence of how Route 66 appeared to early motorists. In addition, intact sections of road retain physical marks of the early highway, including demarcation of shoulders (indicating the narrow width of the two-lane roads), and the marking of paving segments (the grooves between concrete pours are still visible in many sections that have not been significantly altered).

The extant road segments are significant as reminders of early accomplishments in the field of road building and engineering during the first decades of the Federal Highway System. Changes in these road sections demonstrate the progression of road building technology and planning, including basic improvements and safety features. Segments of Route 66 are significant under Criterion A in the area of transportation. They may also be significant under Criterion C in the area of engineering as representative examples of the typical road-building design standards set forth by the American Association of State Highway Transportation Officials.<sup>34</sup>

**Registration Requirements / Integrity:** To qualify for National Register listing, a segment of Route 66 must retain integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. All of these areas of integrity may not equally apply to each section of existing road segment, but all enter into the determination of eligibility.

Integrity of association and location requires that the segment was part of U.S. Route 66 during the period of significance, and that its alignment is verifiable. Engineering plans, highway department records, historic maps and photographs should sufficiently document various alignments. Duration of use of a particular alignment should not make an otherwise eligible section of road ineligible. However, sections of Route 66 that were built prior to 1926 (as part of preceding local, county or state road systems) qualify only if they later became officially part of Route 66.

---

<sup>34</sup> For precedent, see "Historic and Architectural Resources of Route 66 through Illinois."

Integrity of feeling and setting refers to the degree to which the road recalls the experience of traveling the route for reasons of commerce or tourism during the period of significance. The segment must retain the features that make it recognizable as a highway (this is particularly relevant to abandoned segments of roadway), such as the cross-section template (cut banks, fill slopes, roadbed, grade, etc.), alignment, and associated features such as culverts, curbs, and bridges. Overgrown vegetation, incomplete stretches of pavement, eroded banks are allowable only if the site maintains the overall appearance and character of a roadway. Segments that have been widened or improved in other ways (additions of culvert, re-graded, straightened) are eligible for listing if the modifications occurred during the period of significance. The immediate physical setting is crucial to determining the eligibility of particular segments. While 91.4% of Texas Route 66 is discernable and traversable, the feeling and setting have been compromised by numerous alterations to the road surface and the construction of I40 adjacent to the old road. The traveler no longer experiences long stretches of quiet, open plains – as the incessant traffic and noise of the interstate competes with the tranquility that once belonged to the rural stretches of the highway. There are only two relatively short stretches of highway that retain an authentic sense of the historic character of the road. However, the feeling and setting of the road as it passes through the smaller towns, such as McLean, remains much as it was in the early days (in fact, Route 66 was often just a secondary name given to the Main Street) – though perhaps a little less traveled and towns less busy than in the heyday of Route 66 travels.

Integrity of material, design and workmanship applies to the physical characteristics of the road. In most places along the road, historic materials have been replaced in the interest of maintenance and safety. Because pavement is a transient feature of a highway – constantly replaced and upgraded with new materials (i.e. from concrete to asphalt), and the original layers were never meant to be permanent, presence of original paving (while desirable) is not a requirement for registration. Other physical characteristics convey the sense of historic materials design and workmanship. For example, a few less-used or abandoned sections of the road retain traces of the original concrete paving, the pour marks are still visible (and felt as the car moves over the pavement), and the original width is still discernable. Widening was achieved by adding thin strips of pavement to the shoulders of the road.

### ***Subtype: Automobile Bridges***

**Description:** Texas retains only one historic automobile bridge that serviced Route 66. Located 8.2 miles east of Shamrock in Wheeler County, this bridge was originally built for SH 75, which later became US 66, and was bypassed by a new concrete structure in 1950. It now serves local traffic on the I40 frontage road. Designed by M.L. Grady of the State Highway Department Bridge Division, and built in 1932 by E. T. Prater, this five-span 126' long bridge features a span of steel I-beams encased in concrete. The remaining spans are reinforced concrete girder units resting on reinforced concrete pile bents. The rail is standard Type D, concrete post and double beam design. This superstructure carries a 24' wide concrete roadway over the abandoned railroad bed of the former Chicago Rock Island and Gulf Railway.

**Registration Requirements / Integrity:** In order to be listed on the National Register, a bridge must be located on any section of road that was at any time designated as Route 66. The bridge must be an example of a design that was associated with the highway system and used for automobile traffic. If the bridge was constructed before 1926, the bridge must have been in service for a significant for a period of time as part of Route 66. Bridges must retain a high degree of integrity in the areas of location, design, materials and association. According to the TxDOT survey, this bridge is significant for its type and railing. It is one of only a few known examples of a concrete encased steel I-beam configuration, and the Type D railing is noteworthy. The bridge has retained its design, materials, workmanship and location, and sufficient degree of setting, feeling and association to individually meet Criterion F in the area of Engineering and the state level of significance. This property could be listed apart from the associated roadbed.<sup>35</sup>

---

<sup>35</sup> See TxDOT Historic Bridge Inventory, entry made 8/31/199 by John W. Murphey.

A number of bridges lay along the abandoned roadbed between Amarillo and Adrian. Although these sit in the approximate location of old Route 66, their use has yet to be confirmed. They may have functioned as either automobile or rail bridges, and their history and registration requirements are yet to be determined. Further archival research might lend clues as to their age and use.

### ***Subtype: Rail bridges / Grade Separations***

**Description:** Railroad grade separators are an integral part of the Route 66 roadbed. After their construction, these structures allowed both rail and automobile to operate independently, neither having to yield to the other. This both increased speed of travel and safety. Three highway underpasses exist along Route 66 in Texas, all are located in Amarillo. Because they are all unique, we were not able to develop a general “type.” Thus, we have included descriptions of all three structures.

The first railroad grade separation occurs on the east side of Amarillo, in the 7000 block of East Amarillo Boulevard. This is a utilitarian structure, lacking any ornamental details or outstanding design features. This structure consists of two bridges, each spanning two automobile lanes (the boulevard is divided by a grass media, built up to raise the railroad grade). The structure consists of concrete retainer walls supporting steel piers. The sides walls are formed by steel barriers made up of sheets of metal riveted and welded together. The tracks are otherwise visible from the roadbed. The year of construction has not yet been determined, but possible dates from the 1930s, with later additions. While this underpass represents efforts to improve speed of travel and safety of the passengers, its form is not unusual nor specifically related to Route 66. This structure is not recommended as eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places.

The second railroad grade separation occurs on Southwest 6<sup>th</sup> Avenue, just east of Bowie Street. This underpass serves the Rock Island Railroad. This structure is utilitarian in form, consisting of elevated tracks supported on steel piers and shielded from view by steel barriers made up of sheets of metal riveted and welded together. The underpass spans four lanes of undivided traffic. The remarkable feature of this structure is actually the roadbed beneath – this is the only seemingly intact portion of roadbed (complete with indications of shoulder widening and pour marks) in Amarillo. While this underpass represents efforts to improve speed of travel and safety of the passengers, its form is not unusual nor specifically related to Route 66. This structure is not recommended as eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places.

The Buchanan Street Underpass (between First and Northeast Second streets) was designed in 1937 by Gibb Gilchrist of the Texas Highway Department and The U.S. Bureau of Public Roads. This underpass raises the railroad grade above the automobile grade, permitting the continuous flow of vehicular traffic beneath the operating rail line. The underpass was installed both as a safety measure and as a mechanism to relieve traffic congestion. This particular underpass has several separate bridging structures consisting of a reinforced-concrete underpass beneath seven concrete clad steel railroad bridges and one steel railroad bridge. The central roadbed passes underneath, flanked on either side by concrete walls (punctured for lighting). Sidewalk wall balustrades have also been installed. Ornamental street lights that originally stood on each side of the entrance have since disappeared. The design of the bridge refers to 1930s Moderne, notable in the incised groove at the wall joints and the massing of the piers. This underpass is significant under Criterion A in the area of Transportation as a representative of measures taken to improve speed of travel and safety of the passengers. This structure may also be eligible under Criterion C in the area of Engineering or Design as an outstanding example of Moderne styling in public infrastructure. The importance of this underpass lies outside of its relation to Route 66, and should be considered for individual listing.

### **Property Type: Gas Stations**

**Description:** The availability of fuel, motor oil, tires, and other products and maintenance services were important to the automobile traveler along Route 66. Throughout Texas, the number of gas and service stations grew with the highway system and the increase of automobile traffic. Both the form and the function of the gas station evolved as automobile travel increased and as motorists demanded more of the roadside facilities.

The first gasoline stations (in various forms) appeared in United States between 1907 and 1913.<sup>36</sup> Because oil companies considered gasoline as secondary to oil, kerosene and petroleum-based lubricants, gas was initially sold in tin cans at grocery and hardware stores, and poured by hand into automobile gas tanks. Beginning around 1907, companies began to open “stores” out of which to sell gasoline (the first was likely Standard Oil of California’s store in Seattle).<sup>37</sup> This earliest form of the gas station was little more than a hose stretched from a large storage tank adjacent to the refinery. Two years later, the American Gasoline Company of St. Louis (a Shell subsidiary) built the first retail location separate from the bulk plant facility. Most of the early gas stations were improvised adaptations of other building forms (usually sheds) and with the exception of added gas pumps, did not specifically relate to the function of gasoline sales. By 1909, considerable emphasis was placed on gas station innovation, as evidenced by annual national design contests sponsored by the newly-established *National Petroleum News*.<sup>38</sup> In 1910, the Central Oil Company in Flint, Michigan, constructed the first building designed specifically for gasoline distribution, taking the form of a canopy supported by poles. Three years later, Gulf Oil became the first oil company to commission an architect to design a gas station.<sup>39</sup> In order to remain competitive in the growing gasoline market, Standard Oil launched the first prefabricated prototype of “look-alike” stations in 1914.<sup>40</sup> These standardized stations (built for between \$500 to \$1,500) resembled small houses with exaggerated canopies, each identically painted and identified by standardized signage. By 1920, the United States had approximately 15,000 gas stations, most of these dealer-owned (meaning the station owner contracted for the products of one or more oil companies). As oil companies sought control of growing gasoline profits, company owned-and-operated stations increased in number. These were carefully designed and standardized, meant to be readily identifiable and to boost the company image and brand loyalty.

Companies began to develop regional and national “brands,” made readily identifiable by trademarks or logos, such as the Socony/Mobil flying red Pegasus, the Royal Dutch Petroleum/Shell scalloped shell, or Gulf’s orange disc.<sup>41</sup> Logos were first attached only to station buildings, but from 1915 onward gas stations were marked additionally by sign postings – logos lifted high on columns or posts. These became integral parts of gas station, and oil companies measured visual impact of their signs and took into account legibility, impact, simplicity, distinction, and adaptability.<sup>42</sup> Companies simultaneously began to develop standard color schemes to accompany their logos and signs: for example, Standard Oil and its descendants employed red, white and blue; Texaco used red, white and green; and Philips 66 stations were painted orange and brown, though later shifted to red, white and gray. Although novelty gas stations (filling stations in the form of windmills, pyramids, castles, etc.) and regional thematic designs (pueblo style or mission themes in the southwest as early as 1917) were popular in the 1920s and 1930s, the larger oil companies began to employ distinct building designs or motifs that would easily set them apart from their competition. In Texas, the early Philips 66 station and the Toot-N-Totum remain distinctive. These designs were meant to present a distinct profile to motorists passing, sometimes at high speeds. Trademarks, color schemes and building design became icons that signaled a clear identity for a company and its products; this identity helped to establish a regional if not national market, and carried with it a guarantee of quality.

---

<sup>36</sup> The following historical survey of the development of the gas station is based upon John Jakle and Keith Sculle’s seminal study, *The Gas Station in America*.

<sup>37</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 131.

<sup>38</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 134; 161. According to Jakle and Sculle, *The National Petroleum News* was “the leading journal serving the American petroleum industry and, as such, played a leading role in encouraging gasoline station change through annual design contests and the weekly and later monthly reporting of design innovations and individual company adoptions.” (*The Gas Station in America* 161). While this was clearly an important trade journal, the authors do not list its circulation size or regional distribution. We do not yet know if the small-town Texas gas station owner would have received such a journal, and if he did, the extent to which this would have influenced his design decisions.

<sup>39</sup> According to Jakle and Sculle, this station in Pittsburgh was also the first to distribute free road maps. *The Gas Station in America*, 132.

<sup>40</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 131-132.

<sup>41</sup> For more on branding and trademarks, see *The Gas Station in America*, 37-45.

<sup>42</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 42-43.

The evolution of the gas station as a unique building type has been laid out by John Jakle and Keith Sculle in *The Gas Station in America*. Using illustrations that appeared in *National Petroleum News* (from 1910-1990), Jakle and Sculle provide a chronology of the development of gas stations across the United States. All of these types were represented along Route 66, and several of these types remain extant in Texas.

**Subtype: Curbside Station (1915 to ca. 1923):** The earliest gas stations were little more than curbside pumps. Termed “filling stations” in about 1915, these stations consisted of pumps and underground storage tanks installed along the street in front of grocery and hardware stores. These stations offered only one service: the filling of the automobile gas tank by a service attendant. The curbside station was an important innovation as automobiles could be filled more efficiently (mechanically rather than by hand), and centralized distribution reduced the threat of fire. After 1920, local fire safety ordinances forced many curbside stations to close in many of the larger cities, though the curbside station persisted in rural areas in conjunction with general stores and other roadside businesses.<sup>43</sup>

**Subtype: Shed (1909-1940):** Small sheds provided the first off-street, drive-in gas station. The “shed” type came in a variety of shapes and sizes, and were clad with a wide variety of materials. The shed was not a form that was unique to gas stations, and were similar to commercial storage buildings found in lumber yards, coal yards, and petroleum tank yards. These stations usually benefited from the addition of a dirt or gravel driveway.<sup>44</sup>

**Subtype: House (1920-1940):** While curbside and shed stations were typically built in or near business districts, the increase in automobile ownership and travel led to a demand for gas stations in residential areas. After 1920, oil companies began to build these neighborhood “service stations,” often on “best” residential streets. Companies often procured large corner lots capable of accommodating driveways, and that were accessible to motorists from two streets. In an effort to integrate stations into the residential fabric of the neighborhood (so as to reduce opposition to their real estate practices and to quell any resistance to the dirty, temporary shed formerly used as gas stations), the neighborhood service station was designed to resemble a small house. Although many companies hired architects to design standardized, prefabricated stations, many designs addressed regional and national stylistic trends (such as the revival of Colonial, Spanish Colonial, and Classical styles). Typical plans included a small office, storage rooms, and public restrooms. Interestingly, the entrance to men’s restroom was usually inside the station house as a convenience to employees and customers, and the entrance to women’s restroom was usually discreetly hidden behind or alongside the building. Furnishings often included a hand-cranked oil dispenser, desk, chairs, and stove. Stations often had a soft drink cooler and racks for cigarettes or candy.

As oil companies became increasingly concerned with the “image” of the gas station, gas pump design received more and more attention. Gas pump manufacturers (over 200 companies in 1925) began to provide space on the pump for corporate logos. The “visible” pump was developed and marketed as a quality assurance and honest measuring: the glass cylinder at the top of the pump allowed the customer to view the quality of fuel (grades of gasoline were distinguishable by color) and quantity of fuel before it was released into the automobile’s gas tank.

**Subtype: House with Canopy (1916-1940):** The addition of the canopy to the small house produced another type of gas station. Developed by Standard Oil of Ohio in 1916 as a prefabricated prototype, the typical house with canopy was fifteen feet square with an outstretched canopy, supported in front by a single post, covering about the same area. In some cases, canopies were added to existing stations.

---

<sup>43</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 135-136.

<sup>44</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 137.

**Subtype: House with Service Bays (1925-1940):** By the mid-1920s, the services provided at a gas station had grown to include automobile maintenance and cleaning. By 1925, most gas stations were equipped with adjacent service bays for grease pits (open trenches in which the mechanic could stand to work on the car above him) and car-washing floors. After 1925, rotary lifts operated by air compressors gradually replaced the grease pit as a means to elevate the car above the mechanic. The addition of one or more covered bays to an existing station or the construction of a new station with two or more bays covering the washing and lubricating floors became increasingly common. Before 1935, building additions generally adhered to the architectural type or style of the original structure. After 1935, additions were simplified and took the form of flat-roofed boxes. The larger gas stations with three or more bays were often called “super service stations,” and advertised “one stop” automotive service for washing, lubricating, engine brake and muffler repair.<sup>45</sup>

**Subtype: Oblong Box (1930 -1960):** The Depression of the 1930s necessitated a great deal of change in gas station function and design. As gas sales dwindled, station owners began to sell a greater number of products, such as tires, batteries, and accessories (the TBA line). Stations also began to emphasize their ability to service automobiles. The addition of new products and new services often required a larger amount of space than the earlier station types. As service bays and retail spaces were enlarged, the whole was integrated into what Jakle and Sculle have termed the “oblong box.” These stations no longer featured hip or gable roofs or historically-inspired architectural details, but – perhaps in line with the growing interest in Modern architecture and the International Style – the gas station became a flat-roofed rectangular box with little ornament and large expanses of plate glass. These boxes were clad with a number of different materials, including stucco or brick painted according to company’s signage and color scheme, terra cotta, and in the 1940s and 1950s, white porcelain enamel with colored, horizontal stripes along the cornice line that could distinguish the brand of gasoline sold at the otherwise uniformly designed station.

Several leading American industrial designers, such as Walter Dorwin Teague and Raymond Loewy, were “challenged with raising gasoline station architecture to a higher plane.”<sup>46</sup> Teague was hired by Texaco in 1934, and created a “new look” for the company: white streamlined boxes that were “thought to give the impression of speed, modernity and progress.”<sup>47</sup> Norman Bel Geddes created a new prototype for Socony-Vacuum that was influenced by the International Style, of which none were built. Through the applications of industrial design and attention to developments in high style architecture, a new standard functional format for the gas station was developed.

Most companies modified the oblong box to facilitate customer recognition. In some instances, the roof might be higher or lower than the adjacent bays, or the office would be curved to contain the front door, or the office façade might be extended forward (as with Texaco in the late 1940s), or recessed relative to the bays (as with Sinclair in the early 1940s). Some companies retained the canopy as a form of trademark, such as Standard Oil of California, and some adopted characteristic towers or pylons, such as Shell. Texaco notably used both, but placed canopies only on its stations in the southwestern region of the United States to function as sunshades in the desert climates.

Before 1950, most oblong boxes were prefabricated. Steel I-beam frames were bolted together on site, and clad with porcelain enamel and plate glass.<sup>48</sup> After 1950, cinder block and concrete block construction replaced prefabricated steel, and by 1960, acrylic-vinyl and translucent Plexiglas (including sheets backed by fluorescent tubes for night lighting) became popular replacement for porcelain. After 1960, plastic was used to simulate other building materials such as wood, stone, and brick. By 1960, the porcelain and plastic oblongs met with disfavor from planning and zoning commissions and suffered criticism from the public – many companies began to explore design modifications to blend the stations into new suburban landscapes. For example, Shell introduced the “ranch style” in 1960. Older oblongs

---

<sup>45</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 143-144.

<sup>46</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 146.

<sup>47</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 146. About 10,000 of these stations were ultimately constructed.

<sup>48</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 149.



could be easily adapted into the new style by replacing enamel walls, adding a flat front gable roof and extend eaves on one end to form a porch. These new stations were called “blend-ins.”<sup>49</sup>

Unlike the station of the 1920s design to fit into their surroundings the stations of the 1930s were designed for maximum visibility. These shiny, vividly colorful, well-lit oblong boxes contrasted sharply with typical residential and commercial buildings. These new stations benefited from easy maintenance, and large expanses of glass facilitated selling.

***Subtype: Small box (1950- 1960s):*** After World War II and into the 1960s, corporate gas stations continued to dominate and expand to include other functions, such as restaurants, truck stops, and convenience stores. There was, however, a return to the smaller gas station owned by small regional distributing companies. This corresponds with what Jakle and Sculle call the rise of the new “independents.” Most of these stations took a small box form, and because their functions were limited to selling gas, motor oil, and various small sundries, these required only a small office, small storage rooms and restrooms. These were mostly prefabricated steel with glass and enamel-plated cladding.

***Subtype: Small box with canopy (after 1960-1970):*** Although canopies disappeared in the Northeast and Midwest, they thrived on the Pacific Coast, in Southwest and Southeast, primarily because of climate. After 1960, the large canopies were adopted widely by independents, but used as an advertising mechanism. Canopies carried large signs and engendered senses of presence and place that small box stations alone could not achieve. The “butterfly” canopy was attached to the station building and swept upward and out over the driveway with its pumps. The “standard” flat-roofed variety was self-supporting and spanned the pump islands and a portion of the driveway. Most canopies tended to measure around 30 x 40 feet, equal to covering two driveways and a single pump island.

***Subtype: Canopy with booth (1970s):*** By 1970, many new stations appeared that were little more than canopies. Station offices were reduced to small booths located on one of the pump islands. Booths contained an attendant, cash register and little else. Restrooms and vending machines were housed in separate shed-like building located at one edge of driveway. Canopies and booths were prefabricated. These stations in many ways were a return to the “filling station” idea, and were “a direct result of OPEC’s higher gasoline prices and resultant gas shortage.”<sup>50</sup>

**Registration Requirements / Integrity:** The categories described above demonstrate that the property type generally described as gas station has varied a great deal throughout the Route 66 period of significance. It encompasses early filling stations, gas stations, and gas stations that are combined with service bays, cafés, convenience stores, retail establishments, and truck stops. Along Route 66 in Texas, the gas station in all of its incarnations constituted the largest category of historic properties, aside from the general commercial buildings found in central business districts of the towns surveyed. The earlier forms of gas stations, such as the house or house with canopy, are relatively rare in this state. The majority of these stations are of the “oblong box” type and include service bays – and a great many of these date from the postwar era. The gas stations that remain along Route 66, whether still functioning as stations, as other businesses, or abandoned, are reminders of the most common automobile-related property type along the route. These stations reflect an era that required frequent distribution of gas and frequent stops for car maintenance – needs that have disappeared with the reliability and fuel efficiency of later twentieth century automobiles. These stations are significant for their type and plan, style, materials, and location (i.e. directly related to the roadside, within residential neighborhoods, on corner lots in commercial districts). Gas stations with a sufficient degree of integrity are eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A in the areas of Transportation and Commerce. They may also meet Criterion C if they are a good or rare example of a type, style or method of construction. A number of the Route 66 stations may have been built after 1956, the year in which the Interstate Highway Act was passed

---

<sup>49</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 152.

<sup>50</sup> *The Gas Station in America*, 154.

and Route 66 through Amarillo was realigned to follow Amarillo Boulevard, and may be considered for listing if they can meet Criterion Consideration G for properties less than fifty years of age.

Eligibility under Criterion A requires that a gas station show clear association with and convey the feeling commercial traffic and automobile travel along Route 66 in Texas. Eligibility under Criterion C requires that the property be a good or rare example of an architectural type, style or method of construction. Stations that no longer used as a gas station could still be considered eligible for listing if they still reflect their historic function. Those that have additions, such as a service bay, can be determined eligible if the original structure is discernibly intact and the property otherwise exhibits a high degree of integrity. If the additions were made during the period of significance, the additions do not affect eligibility.

### **Property Type: Lodging**

**Description:** Properties categorized as Lodging include any type of building that was rented out to the traveling public. In a few instances, private residences have been documented as part of the “Historic Resource Survey: Route 66 Through Texas” when it is apparent that these were linked to Route 66. The following descriptions of lodging facilities include campgrounds, tourist cabins or courts, motels, and hotels.

Warren Belasco argues that private use of the automobile was primarily recreational before World War II.<sup>51</sup> Before 1910, fewer than 500,000 people owned automobiles; by 1920, over eight million passenger cars were registered in the United States.<sup>52</sup> With this marked increase in car ownership came a similar increase in automobile travel – which also meant that motorists going long distances had to spend many nights on the road. In his seminal study of the development of roadside lodging, Belasco traces the evolution from autocamp (an “inexpensive, individualistic sport with antimodernist implications”) to motor inn, a process that took – in Belasco’s estimation – only thirty-five years.

While traditional hotels dominated the lodging industry in the early 1900s, few were convenient or affordable for the automobile traveler. Hotels were for the most part located in congested downtown areas, or near rail stops. These hotels were often governed by strict customs and rules of propriety that road-weary automobilists could not uphold. Furthermore, many downtown hotels could not offer sufficient parking for patrons’ automobiles. Resort hotels, on the other hand, though originally intended for rail passengers, were available to early automobile tourists, though originally intended for rail passengers. Usually located in mountains or at the seaside. These hotels traditionally catered to the well-to-do, and often to women whose husbands worked year-round in the city while women and children would spend a leisurely summer in the country. Some resort hotel did accommodate members of the middle and lower classes who came on short excursions that included the entire family. Automobile travel particularly appealed to this type of vacationer, and with the growing popularity of car travel, only a few resorts remained strictly elite preserves.

**Subtype: Auto Camps (1910 – 1920):** As several hundred thousand middle class families began to tour by auto, hotels could no longer meet the growing need for lodging during long distance travel from point to point. Travelers in the first two decades of the twentieth century camped each night at a different spot along the roadside, sleeping in their cars or in tents, and cooking over open fires. They carried with them all of the essentials for car camping. Autocampers called this “squatter-anarchist” phase of travel “gypsying;”<sup>53</sup> and outsiders called the campers “tin can” tourists, a reference to both the garbage they left along the roadside and the ‘tin lizzies’ many drove. Belasco recognized a social need for this type of leisure; he argues that behind the tourists’ “delight in traveling off the beaten track was a profound desire to discover new perspectives, to experience unconventional intimacies with fellow Americans, and to break away from the hectic work routines and bureaucratic institutions of an urban-industrial civilization autocamping revived what tourists imagined to be the more leisurely pace, personal independence,

---

<sup>51</sup> Belasco, Warren James. *Americans on the road: From Autocamp to Motel, 1910-1945*. Cambridge MA and London: MIT Press, 1979 (viii).

<sup>52</sup> Belasco, 7.

<sup>53</sup> Belasco, 3.

simplicity, and family solidarity of pre industrial times. Yet autocampers were essentially recreationists, not rebels. Their protest was temporary; after several weeks on the road, tourist generally returned to home and job.”<sup>54</sup>

Auto camps were first developed in the western United States as an inexpensive alternative to hotels, and as a way to provide legitimate overnight accommodations for the highway “gypsies.” Camps provided a spot where a traveler could pitch a tent (or later rent a cabin), and these appealed to seasonal tourist and to migratory transients traveling in search of work. In order to guard against some of the notoriously “uncivil” campers, and to provide a civic service, towns along migratory routes and frequently traveled roads began to develop municipal campgrounds, popular from 1920 to 1924. The better-equipped campgrounds, often found in the larger cities, provided public toilets and showers, water and firewood. Some had a commissary that sold groceries and supplies for the traveler. A few more ambitious campgrounds added gas stations, garages, lunchrooms, laundries, and large playgrounds. Initially, the municipal campgrounds were funded by taxes and were free for the camper. Although romanticized as “democratic,” a profound social stratification tended to operate along class lines where tourists and transients were thrown together.

In order to counter the “undesirable element” that frequented the municipal autocamps, many towns began to impose fees, registration requirements, time limits, and police supervision at their camps. By limiting access, they hoped to attract a “better class” of paying tourists. The mid-1920s were transitional years, when many towns charged fees as others began to abandon public camps altogether. As always, the West coast took the lead, partly because year-round touring made roadside business there uniquely profitable and partly because this region had the greatest difficulty with migrants and would-be settlers. By 1925, the existing municipal auto camps charged entrance fees, charge for firewood, and enforce limitations on length of stay – all to discourage migrants. Once such fees were assessed, private operators began to be attracted to the auto camp business.<sup>55</sup>

As the demand for better facilities became apparent, and travelers began to be willing to pay for these conveniences, privately-owned commercial auto camps quickly replaced municipal campgrounds. These provided: fireplaces, picnic tables, coin-operated stoves in community kitchens, electrical outlets, electrical lighting, tent floors, and in some instances, tents. The popularity of this type of campground lead entrepreneurs to develop primitive rental cabins in lieu of tents.

Permanent cabins at a campground signaled an important change: the development of the cabin camp. As cabins were weatherproofed and provided with stoves and sometimes heating, they began to define a kind of overnight experience removed from the rustic outdoors.

**Subtype: Tourist Homes:** This early form of the bed-and-breakfast exited simultaneously with and served the same function as the western auto camp. The tourist home was often a private residence that rented one or two rooms on a nightly basis. Operators of tourist homes in the 1930s were stereotyped as widows or bankrupt former businessmen.

**Subtype: Cabin camps:** In the mid to late 1920s, tourists began to drive longer and faster, and often into night. Better quality pavement, wider roads, and the elimination of rail crossings and more powerful car engines facilitated longer trips over wider areas. In 1928, 300 miles was a good day’s drive, and 450-mile day trip was not uncommon, particularly in the “wide open” west.<sup>56</sup> As travelers began to go longer distances, they began to demand better facilities. Thus developed the tourist cabin, small lodgings often grouped in camps that had once been tent campgrounds. While most early cabins were little more than shacks, they do represent the earliest form of the motel, and emerged directly from the auto camp and the tourist home. Three varieties of cabin camp evolved: auto camp with cabins added; the cabin camp built from scratch; and the tourist home with cabins added on the owner’s lot. Many of these early buildings were constructed inexpensively, using cheap locally available materials. These were most often wood-frame buildings, with little architectural detail. The early cabins offered shelter and a cook stove, though

---

<sup>54</sup> Belasco, 3.

<sup>55</sup> *The Motel in America*, 34.

<sup>56</sup> Belasco, 132.

the amenities gradually increased to include communal restrooms and later private baths, linens and furnishings. Cabin camps were arranged in a number of different configurations, including the row, row-on-row, L, narrow U, wide U, crescent, cruciform, and clustered patterns. As cabins developed into motels, they were arranged in the forms of row, L, U, narrow U, and wide U.

Architects had a very small role in the design of early lodging facilities. Most cabin camp (and later motel) owners built their own cabins, though some prepackaged kits were available from companies such as the Economy Housing Company of Iowa. Kits could be purchased at lumberyard or from traveling salesmen. Popular magazines and trade journals offered design prototypes and included instructions for building simple cabins. Owners of cabin courts often traveled to observe what their competitors were accomplishing. Recognizing the value of shared information, camp owners formed state and regional trade associations that facilitated exchange and set specific standards for operation. These standards had certain building implications, and from them, a restricted design vocabulary developed. Cabin camps and later motels had not only to function in a certain way, but had to look like a lodging accommodation that could attract customers who were increasingly demanding.<sup>57</sup>

Cabin camps were popular because they were convenient. A 1936 article in *Hotel Magazine* lists “sixteen separate and distinct conveniences” that included the “car at cottage door; economy; housekeeping facilities; more privacy; no street car or other city traffic noises; no tipping required; speed in checking out; speed in emergency exits; home-like atmosphere; limited removal of baggage from car; individual control of heating system; direct contacts with owner; elimination of driving in downtown traffic; no garage storage; car servicing on premise; personal appearance after driving all day not embarrassing as there are not lobbies to pass through.”<sup>58</sup>

**Subtype: Cottage Courts:** As cabin camp owners began to offer more amenities to their discerning customers, these more substantial cabins were renamed “cottage.” Unlike their flimsy, seasonal predecessor, cottages were durable and suitable for year-round rental. The *Tourist Court Plan Book* recommended building out of materials that would last fifteen to twenty years, but warned against investing in anything more “permanent” (and by implication, expensive) because the “materials would outlast the style.”<sup>59</sup> Cottages, unlike cabins, usually contained a private bathroom and a closet. Initially kitchens or kitchenettes were widespread, but by World War II had largely disappeared from newer motels because of low demand and high construction costs. Cottage units were added to preexisting cabin arrays in older motels, or replaced older cabins.

After 1930, clusters of cottages or cabins increasingly were referred to as “courts.” Cottages were frequently arranged around a central open space, or court, and the width of the U-shaped court was dependent on the depth of the lot and the extent of highway frontage. Before 1930, most cottage courts had open spaces between the unit, which were increasingly replaced by car ports or garages. These garages linked each cottage unit from wall to wall, forming a continuous façade. Each freestanding unit was still discernible by individual roof lines.

Typical cottage courts contained an office building that included private apartment space for the court owner or manager and his family. The complex might also have coffee shop. Public space was primarily outdoors. Space not given to parking was often landscaped. Architecturally, cottages were made to look like suburban houses, furnished with rugs, dressing tables, bureaus, radios, etc. sometimes had steam heat from central heating plants.

**Subtype: Motor Courts:** Cottage courts quickly developed into the motel court. These were arranged in much the same manner as the cottage court, although the motel court units were no longer free-standing but integrated under a single roof. Long porches stretched over the full façade, providing a greater sense of visual cohesiveness, as well as shelter in inclement weather. Motel courts were generally single-story buildings, and early examples featured garage spaces between room units. Some motel courts featured coffee shops or restaurants, and some operated gas stations.

---

<sup>57</sup> *The Motel in America*, 39.

<sup>58</sup> *The Motel in America*, 39.

<sup>59</sup> *The Motel in America*, 41. See also the *Tourist Court Plan Book* published by the *Tourist Court Journal* 1950: 16.

Although motor courts were built in a range of architectural styles from Tudor Revival to Colonial Revival, “western” themes were the most popular and appeared a great deal in the southwestern states of Route 66. Motor courts with facades integrated around interior courtyards were reminiscent of Spanish haciendas, especially when they were stucco to simulate adobe. Motels with names like El Rancho, Casa Grande, and The Alamo appeared from coast to coast.

**Subtype: Motel:** After World War II, the word “motel” (a concatenation of motor hotel) came to describe motor courts. Many motels were organized around large courtyards that served as informal outdoor “lobbies.” Courtyards came to include swimming pools located in a landscaped ground suggestive of a resort. Parking was restricted to the outside of the U-shaped courts, and rooms were constructed with doors both front and back. On the pool side, sliding doors accessed small patios and the swimming pool. Not all motor courts had courtyard configurations. Some had simpler row or L-shaped room arrangements, although space was usually reserved for complete court configurations should the motel prove sufficiently profitable.

Motel rooms became increasingly standardized around furnishings supplied by national supply houses that specialized in hotel and motel outfitting. Certain furniture pieces became standard, such as the writing desk and the television. Air conditioning became a necessity, especially in the Southwest and Southeast. Brand names became increasingly important in advertising and these items were regularly promoted on motel signs as guarantees of quality.”<sup>60</sup>

The sign – neon signs in particular – became an important feature of the postwar motel. These giant signs came to visually dominate the motel grounds. Signs, often with elaborate neon displays, were “intended to provide a vertical dimension to an otherwise low-to-the ground building configuration. Located at the driveway entrance, the sign carried iconography symbolic of the motel’s quality and range of services.”<sup>61</sup> These symbols were specifically designed with the high-speed traveler in mind: as cars became faster, signs became graphically simpler and physically larger. The design of the sign itself came to signify quality as well as modernity, and several chains, such as Holiday Inn, periodically updated their corporate sign in order to update their image.

Motel construction boomed in the late 1950s and 1960s. By 1964, there were at least 61,000 motels in the U.S.<sup>62</sup> Motels benefited from the general decentralization of cities and towns that came with increased automobile ownership. The Federal interstate highway program, begun in 1956, was an important part of this decentralization process.

Architectural integrity in motel buildings was short-lived. Not only were owners constantly battling to modernize, but certain lodging-related tax codes encouraged and ensured a brisk trade in second-, third-, even fourth-hand motels, many of which would have otherwise been abandoned. Because of such rapid turn-over in ownership and the constant pull to remodel, builders were prone to put up junky, flimsy buildings and to otherwise foster impermanence on the roadside. In 1960, the average lifespan of a motel building was calculated at only 9 years.<sup>63</sup>

**Subtype: Motor Inns:** This iteration of the motel court first appeared in the 1950s, most often in larger metropolitan areas, either downtown in urban renewal zones, or near airports, or at new interchanges of peripheral freeways. Substantially larger and more luxurious than motor courts, motor inns were complexes made up of two- or three-story buildings organized around a courtyard. Motor inns often had elaborate outdoor areas focused on the swimming pool, and typically featured expanded public space indoors. The motel coffee shop evolved into a full-service dining room with an adjacent cocktail lounge, banquet hall, and meeting rooms. The registration desk expanded into a small lobby with a magazine counter and gift shop. The size of guest rooms increased dramatically, and came to include standard features, such as two double beds, bedside tables, a telephone, a luggage rack, chairs, a bureau,

---

<sup>60</sup> *The Motel in America*, 47-49.

<sup>61</sup> *The Motel in America*, 47.

<sup>62</sup> *The Motel in America* 45; source “A survey of Motel Chain Organizations, Part One: Referral Chains.” *Motel/Motor Inn Journal* 38, Dec 1974: 65.

<sup>63</sup> *The Motel in America*, 47.

and a desk or table. Each room also included a small dressing area and restroom, with the sink and vanity separated from the shower and toilet. All rooms were typically air-conditioned. And “of course” there was a television set.<sup>64</sup>

Motor inn are notable for the compact character of their floor plans and site plans. Because guest rooms were often built back to back with utilities placed down a center core, motels with 150 to 300 rooms could be accommodated on sites where only 50 to 60 rooms had been possible before.

The motor inn was promoted as a motel type by several competing motel chains. While the small private owner had dominated the motel industry up to the 1950s, the need for expanding lodgings services available at a motor-inn required a great deal more capital. National chains motels, such as Holiday Inn or Best Western, brought substantial standardization to motel architecture, including identical floor plans and furnishings. Motels had to look like motels and motels within a given chain were expected to look alike. Modular construction became increasingly common during the motor inn era, and significantly aided the move toward standardization. Room “kits” with electrical and plumbing fixtures already installed were shipped to construction sites from the factories. Factory assembly reduced labor costs, the largest single expense in motel construction. Modular construction limited room size because a width of 12 feet was the maximum allowed to ship on highways.<sup>65</sup>

**Subtype: Highway Hotels:** The highway hotel, an unsuccessful experiment in the 1920s and 1930s, reappeared in the 1960s as an assemblage of rooms partially if not wholly contained in a high-rise structure. Traditional motel design, which favored row, L, and court arrangements, gave way to the multistory box or other simple forms including cruciform, round, and curvilinear. The typical 1970s highway hotel included a high-rise unit in which the bulk of the public space was on the first floor and most of the private rooms were above or in adjacent low-rise wings. Rooms in the tower were entered from central hallways as in traditional hotels, but rooms in the wings could be approached directly from adjacent parking lots as in the typical motel configuration. In the 1980s, low-rise wings were eliminated from most new construction, and the later type favored the tower model. Restaurants, cocktail lounges, and meeting rooms in highway hotels were more elaborate than in motor inns, and many turned their focus toward the business traveler rather than the leisurely tourist. Most highway hotels were located in large urban areas along suburban roadways, near airports, and in downtown redevelopment areas.

As Jakle and Sculle point out in *The Motel in America*, “changing motel morphology was characterized by evolution rather than revolution. The growth of automobile travel and the demand for new automobile-convenient lodging facilities along American highways prompted the trend toward larger and more luxurious facilities in order to capture more and more of the traditional hotel trade. Older, obsolete motels continued to serve less affluent travelers or lent themselves to ready recycling as low-cost weekly or monthly apartment rental, especially low-income migrants.”<sup>66</sup> Although motel owners often felt the pressure to modernize, compared to other features of the American roadside, such as gas stations and quick service restaurants, motels tended to hold their original function longer, although not necessarily their design integrity.<sup>67</sup>

**Registration Requirements / Integrity:** The Route 66 tourist courts, motels, and motor inns that date from the period of significance remain significant in terms of their ability to recall the needs, the demands of the commercial tourist trade along the route. Their plans, designs, and settings reveal the evolution of the motel industry in Texas. Tourist lodgings are eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A in the areas of commerce and transportation, as road-related services associated with Route 66. An eligible property must retain a clear feeling and association with Route 66 and the development of the motel industry along this highway. Eligibility under Criterion C requires that the lodging facility retain sufficient degrees of integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship, feeling, association, and setting. These must be good or rare examples of a type or style. Many of the historic

---

<sup>64</sup> *The Motel in America*, 49.

<sup>65</sup> *The Motel in America*, 51.

<sup>66</sup> *The Motel in America*, 55.

<sup>67</sup> *The Motel in America*, 56.

motels along Route 66 no longer function in their original capacity, though retain their basic form and thus must be considered for eligibility.

## Property Type: Eating Establishments

**Description:** In the United States, restaurants had existed as commercial ventures only since the Civil War. Before the Civil War, food prepared and consumed outside of the home was generally found in inns and taverns. Hotels had dining rooms that catered to both travelers and long-term renters. Boarding houses had similar facilities, often geared toward bachelor residents, but also offered meals to non-residents. In the 1830s, the Del Monico family in Manhattan popularized the idea of the “restaurant,” applying the name to several eating establishments. The term was originally used to denote establishments serving “high-class cuisine” that appealed to the New York socialites. The term “restaurant” was quickly appropriated to more common uses, and came to apply to a variety of places that catered to not only the elite, but to the working class. Thus, in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the term “restaurant” came to refer to not only the high class eating houses, dining rooms, coffee houses, oyster houses, and even to saloons serving quick lunches, to name a few.<sup>68</sup>

**Subtype: Early Quick Service Restaurants:** Travelers – both before and after the advent of the automobile – had access to a variety of quick service eating establishments. Hotel dining rooms, geared particularly toward the traveling businessman (and later to the more affluent automobile traveler), served fine meals built around red meat. Travelers seeking lighter fare had access to hotel bar and grills, or hotel coffee shops, which served light breakfasts and lunches. These coffee shops were less formal than the hotel dining rooms, and grew in popularity as the automobile became a popular means of travel.

Eugene Russell’s invention of the soda drink in 1839 provided opportunity for another type of quick service eating establishment: the soda fountain. In the 1880s, drug stores, dime stores, and department stores with soda fountains began to add light food such as sandwiches and ice cream. As owners added counters for the customers, the idea of the luncheonette – serving sandwiches, soups, and other light meals – emerged. Both the soda fountain and the luncheonette were designed to create maximum efficiency of movement, and were often arranged in a linear or U-shaped plan, in which customers sat adjacent to one another, and facing the work area. All food, beverages and cashier duties were handled from the interior service aisle.<sup>69</sup>

From this type emerged the lunch room containing a lunch counter. By the 1920s, chains of lunchrooms, usually consisting of only two or three locations, were established in most large American cities. It should be noted that most lunch counter establishments were not chains, but were rather “mom and pop” operations. Most locations were oriented toward the pedestrian, often near streetcar lines and subway stations. Most lunchrooms were long and narrow with an axis perpendicular to the street and sidewalk. A long lunch counter ran along one wall, and customers sat on stools facing the counter. Food was prepared at a counter in the rear of the restaurant. Candies and bakery items were a mainstay and often cooked on location.

Small towns and city business districts soon became host to small restaurants or cafés. These also were arranged around the soda fountain and lunch counter ideas, but also incorporated table service to small tables and booths. The café was geared toward quick service, particularly breakfast and lunch, and leisurely dining in the evenings. These had wider variety of menu options than did the soda fountain or lunchroom, and rarely sold candies or baked goods. Because commercial space was standardized in most commercial districts, restaurant layout also worked on certain levels of standardization.

The cafeteria furthered the idea of standardized dining. Established in the late 1880s in New York, this was perhaps the earliest self-service buffet counter. This form quickly became popular, so much so along the west coast that California was nicknamed the “Cafeteria Belt.”<sup>70</sup> The cafeteria remained popular in the South and Southwest well past World War II. Most cafeterias were large spaces,

---

<sup>68</sup> *Fast Food*, 21.

<sup>69</sup> *Fast Food*, 27-28

<sup>70</sup> *Fast Food*, 33.

with the buffet line along one end of the space, arranged like an assembly line for food. Most started with the trays and silverware, then deserts, salads, entrees and drinks. Cafeterias were geared toward “assembly-line speed,” so that even large meals could be obtained and consumed quickly.<sup>71</sup>

A more personal form of dining, the diner, was organized around an intimate lunch counter. Derived from the lunch wagon, evolving into something akin to a railroad dining car. “Diner” signified a range of small restaurants from main street cafes to highway cafes, but according to Jakle and Sculle, was architecturally distinct. The term “diner” was coined by Patrick Tierney of New York who wanted to upgrade his lunch wagon to something closer to the more upscale railroad dining car. The first diners were modular, had counters with stools along one wall and booths along the other. Kitchen, storage, and restroom facilities were included. In the 1930s, many diners adopted Streamline Moderne vocabulary meant to communicate speed and modernity. Surfaces were smoothed, rounded, brushed, polished, and wrapped. These diners, in particular, with their reference to the fast pace of everyday life, began to appear outside of their traditional sphere of factory-gate and streetcar stops, to become a fixture along the nation’s highways. By 1932, an estimated 4,000 modular diners existed in the United States.<sup>72</sup>

Although quick-service eating, or “fast food,” is often equated with automobile convenience, Jakle and Sculle demonstrate that many attributes of the fast food restaurant were established well before the “automobile era” was in full swing. By 1910, the American restaurant had come of age, catering to wide spectrum of customers. The primary organizing device was the lunch counter with stools, and when space allowed, tables and booths. In 1920s, this format remained virtually unchanged, with the exception of the cafeteria and the automat. Many of the pre-automobile restaurants continued to flourish as automobile travel increased, and many began to serve this new clientele. The café and the diner in particular remained well-suited to the new kind of traveler – though new demands led to changes in the quick service restaurant.

The automobile, with its specific requirements for accessibility and parking, significantly altered at least one facet of the restaurant industry. Traditional eating establishments, such as the lunch room and the diner discussed above, were used by the earliest automobile travelers who passed through larger cities and small towns. As entrepreneurs began to recognize a different kind of demand, new restaurant forms began to evolve to meet these needs. New services and amenities, including drive-through and parking lots, appealed to the motorist on the move.

**Subtype: Tea Room:** The tea room, much like resort lodging, catered to the wealthy automobile traveler, most often female. Tea rooms were often destinations in themselves, rather than merely a roadside stop as some of its later counterparts became. Typical tea room menus included tea, coffee, small entrees, and dessert. The tea room was “homelike, feminine place in its informality, comfort and domestic air.”<sup>73</sup> Tea rooms were often found as extensions of privately-owned residences, as part of taverns, grist mills, and other rural facilities. The atmosphere was elegant yet rustic and old-fashioned, often decorated with old fireplaces, antiques, spinning wheels and quilts.<sup>74</sup> Once this formerly rural form of eating establishment gained popularity, they began to open in city stores, hotel, or suburban locations.

**Subtype: Roadside Stand:** The market for less pretentious roadside dining grew as the automobile became available to a wider socio-economic cross-section of the American public. The roadside stand was perhaps the most modest of dining establishments. Originally modeled after sheds or stalls typically found at fairs and carnivals, these stands served fast food items, such as served hamburgers, hot dogs, ice cream, soft drinks, and lemonade. Architecturally, these stands were simple rectangular boxes usually featuring a service window and a horizontal band of open space above a ledge. Roadside stands were usually built on sidewalks or highway shoulders, but as the pace of the highway increased, the stands were gradually set back from the immediate path of traffic. Like the early tourist cabins, most food stands were seasonal and owned by small independent operators. Most stands were owner-built

---

<sup>71</sup> *Fast Food*, 33.

<sup>72</sup> *Fast Food* 37.

<sup>73</sup> *Fast Food* 41.

<sup>74</sup> *Fast Food* 41.



(often quite flimsy and impermanent) and early examples were rarely adorned with any outstanding architectural features.

During the late 1920s and 1930s, architectural experimentation gained popularity among roadside stand owners. Outlandish, eye-catching designs littered the highways – stands appeared as giant milk cans, windmills, chickens and donuts. The idea of “novelty” guided many of these formal innovations.

**Subtype: Highway Cafés:** Improvements to roadside stands came in the form of the roadside café. These came in many different forms, though were either stand-alone establishments immediately adjacent to the highway or linked with gas stations, motels, or both, providing a one-stop accommodation. As a result of the late 1920s efforts to “clean up the miscellaneous hodgepodge of unsightly hot-dog stands and the accompanying riffraff of roadside markets and what-not,”<sup>75</sup> the café featured year-round facilities, indoor dining, better waste disposal, restrooms, and parking lots.

**Subtype: Highway Coffee Shops:** “Coffee shops” or “family restaurants” were a new kind of restaurant, specifically developed along the roadside during the 1930s. Entrepreneurs like Howard Johnson sought to merge the soda fountain with the more formal types of restaurants, and create an environment within which families would feel comfortable. This type of eating establishment featured a lunch counter, frequently serving sodas and desserts, and a formal dining room in which orders were taken and served at the customer’s table. Many of these restaurants, particularly the chains such as Howard Johnson’s, were designed for prime visibility from the highway and were standardized so as to immediately be recognizable. Menus included all of the lighter “carnival” fare of the roadside stand – made to order at lightning speed.

A particular form of informal coffee shop developed in the 1950s, particularly along Route 66 and in California. Bold designs featuring cantilevered roofs, wide expanses of glass, pylons, space-age motifs, and iconic images of parabolas, boomerangs, rockets, space ships, and amoebas were the hallmarks of what Professor Douglas Haskell of Yale and the architectural photographer Julius Shulman have coined “Googie architecture.”<sup>76</sup>

**Subtype: Drive-Ins:** Developed from the roadside stand and the highway coffee shop, drive-in restaurants came to epitomize the automobile eating experience. Particularly after World War II, drive-ins were typified by the large canopy spanning parking spaces. The kitchen and carhop station were adjacent to the canopy. Later innovations placed all structures under one roof. Carhops delivered food on trays to diners inside of the car, though larger drive-ins also feature indoor lunch counters and booths. The carhop service was an essential feature of this restaurant type.

**Subtype: Outdoor Walk-up:** This type, also related to the roadside stand, was essentially a drive-in simplified to only a kitchen, service window, and restrooms. Diners ordered their meal at the service window, and either ate inside of their cars or at picnic tables provided. As Jakle and Sculle note, the “highly mechanized kitchen” sets this type apart from its predecessor, the roadside stand.<sup>77</sup> Walk-ups were geared toward extremely rapid food preparation, including large scale sandwich production, beverage, and dessert service. All were achieved by an assembly-line process of production.

While many walk-ups were prefabricated steel boxes with large glass windows and porcelain enamel cladding, franchise chains sought distinctive architectural forms, color schemes, and architectural details. McDonald’s is the iconic example of this type of eating establishment and the assembly-line method of food preparation.

**Subtype: Indoor Walk-up:** In the mid-1960s, negative reactions to “roadside huckstering” and garish (though unmistakable) design of the roadside restaurant prompted a new trend toward “tasteful

---

<sup>75</sup> *Fast Food*, 45.

<sup>76</sup> For the origins of Googie, see <http://www.spaceagecity.com/googie/>.

<sup>77</sup> *Fast Food*, 57.

restraint and stylishness.”<sup>78</sup> Architecturally, the roadside stand and the outdoor walk-up were “improved,” were modernized and sanitized. Outdoor walk-ups were often renovated and small dining areas were added, though the cost and labor-saving walk-up feature was retained. By the 1970s, a drive-up window was added to the building configuration.

***Subtype: Drive-through:*** The drive-through window originated in the 1930s, probably coming out of a Texas restaurant called the Pig Stand. Customers would drive up in their cars, order at a small window and receive their food “to go” in a paper sack. Drive-ins often had a take-out departments, and often added a drive-up window. In the 1950s, orders were placed through speaker phones located at a distance from the window.

***Subtype: Other Roadside Restaurants:*** A survey of roadside restaurants would not be complete without the mention of the iconic Stuckey’s. Only one remains along Route 66 in Texas, though technically is now located adjacent to Interstate 40 just outside of Vega. The original Stuckey’s –a pecan stand in Georgia – was founded just before World War II by W. S. Stuckey, Sr., there were 29 stores and by 1964, there were over 124 branches. Stuckey’s quickly evolved from a pecan stand to a candy producer, and eventually to a full-service roadside stop, including both counter and table restaurant service. Stuckey’s eventually became a one-stop shop, offering everything from gasoline to restrooms, to food, to their ever-famous pecan logs.

**Registration Requirements / Integrity:** The remaining cafes and restaurants are reminders of how this property type evolved to serve the need of the traveling public. Their plans, materials, and designs are significant in that they reflect the ingenuity of early entrepreneurs who recognized a need and sought to fill it.

Cafes and Restaurants may be eligible for listing under Criterion A in the areas of transportation and commerce as representative examples of road-related service businesses associated with Route 66. They may also meet Criterion C if they are good or rare examples of a type, style or method of construction.

---

<sup>78</sup> *Fast Food*, 59.

## **Selected Bibliography**

Belasco, Warren James. *Americans on the road: From Autocamp to Motel, 1910-1945*. Cambridge MA and London: MIT Press, 1979.

Clark, Marian. *The Route 66 Cookbook*. Tulsa: Council Oaks Books, 1993.

Huddleson, John David. *Good Roads for Texas: A History of the Texas Highway Department, 1917-1947*. PhD Dissertation. Texas A&M University, 1981.

Jakle, John A., Keith A Sculle and Jefferson S. Rogers. *The Motel in America*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996.

Jakle, John A. *The American Small Town: Twentieth-Century Place Images*. Hamden, CT: Archon Books, 1982.

Jakle, John A. *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth-Century North America*. Lincoln and London: University of Nebraska Press, 1985.

Jakle, John A. and Keith A Sculle. *The Gas Station in America*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1994.

Jakle, John A. and Keith A Sculle. *Fast Food: Roadside Restaurants in the Automobile Age*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins Press, 1999.

Jennings, Jan, ed. *Roadside America: The Automobile in Design and Culture*. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1990.

Lightfoot, Tom, Bob Gresham, Hill Gresham, and Jewell A. Berry. Temple, Texas: *Tourist Court Plan Book*. Tourist Court Journal, 1950

Margolies, John. *Home Away From Home: Motels in America*. Boston: Bulfinch Press, 1995.

Philips, Peter. H. "Walking in and Driving Out: A Brief History of Automobile Dealerships." Society for Commercial Archaeology, News Journal. 12:3, 1993.

Scott, Quinta and Susan Croce Kelly. *Route 66: The Highway and Its People*. Norman and London: University of Oklahoma Press, 1988.

Scott, Quinta. *Along Route 66*. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2000.

Wallis, Michael. *Route 66: The Mother Road*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1990.

"Historic Highways and the National Register of Historic Places: The Evaluation and Identification of Roads and their Related Resources." Annual Conference of the Society for Commercial Archaeology. October 21-24, 1998. Chattanooga, Tennessee.

United States Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration. *America's Highways, 1776-1976*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

## **Guidebooks**

Alsberg, Henry G, ed. *The American Guide: The South and the Southwest*. New York: Hastings House, 1949.

Snyder, Tom. *The Route 66 Traveler's Guide and Roadside Companion*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1990.

## **Route 66 Contexts and surveys**

Anders, Mary Ann. "Route 66 in Oklahoma: An Historic Preservation Survey." Report Prepared for the Oklahoma Historic Preservation Office, 1992.

Kammer, David. "The Historic and Architectural Resources of Route 66 Through New Mexico." Report Prepared for the New Mexico State Historic Preservation Office, 1984.

Seratt, Dorothy and Terri Ryburn-Lamont. "Historic and Architectural Resources of Route 66 through Illinois." Report Prepared for the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, 1997.

Texas Department of Transportation. Historic Bridge Inventory, entry made 8/31/199 by John W. Murphey.

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service. "Special Resource Study, Route 66." 1995.

## **Websites**

California Historic Route 66 Association / Route 66 Collection:

<http://www.wemweb.com/index.shtml> New Mexico Route 66 Association: <http://www.rt66nm.org/>

Oklahoma Route 66 Association: <http://www.oklahomaroute66.com/>

Historic Route 66 Association of Arizona: <http://www.route66web.com/~azrt66/index.htm>

National Route 66 Federation: <http://www.national66.com/>

Historic Route 66:

<http://www.historic66.com/index.html> The Route 66

Place: <http://www.route66place.com/>

The Route 66 Photo Lounge: <http://www.bekkoame.ne.jp/~toisa/>

Illinois - [www.il66assoc.org](http://www.il66assoc.org)

Route 66 Association of Missouri -

[www.missouri66.org](http://www.missouri66.org) Texas -

[www.mockturtlepress.com/texas/](http://www.mockturtlepress.com/texas/)

Route 66 Corridor Preservation - [www.cr.nps.gov/rt66/](http://www.cr.nps.gov/rt66/)

Railroad stations of Route 66: <http://www.wemweb.com/railroad-stations/index.html>

Route 66 State Park, Missouri: <http://www.mostateparks.com/route66.htm>

Across the Tracks: A Route 66 Story: <http://www.unm.edu/~rt66/>

<http://www.route66products.com/>

## **Route 66 Associations - Non-US**

Belgium - [www.historic66.com](http://www.historic66.com)

Canada - [homepage.mac.com/route66kicks/Route66/](http://homepage.mac.com/route66kicks/Route66/)

Norway - [www.route66.no](http://www.route66.no)

## **Museums**

Oklahoma Route 66 Museum - [www.route66.org](http://www.route66.org)

National Route 66 Museum - [www.elkcitychamber.com/route66.asp](http://www.elkcitychamber.com/route66.asp)  
Rancho Cucamonga - [www.citivu.com/rc/rte66/rte66.html](http://www.citivu.com/rc/rte66/rte66.html)

## **Route 66 - Other Related**

Route66.com - [www.route66.com](http://www.route66.com)  
Route 66 Magazine - [route66magazine.com](http://route66magazine.com)  
Route 66 West - [www.route66west.com](http://www.route66west.com)  
Michael Wallis - [www.MichaelWallis.com](http://www.MichaelWallis.com)  
J. Jenson - [bygonebyways.com](http://bygonebyways.com)  
Route 66 Map Series/J. Ross - [www.66maps.com](http://www.66maps.com)  
ExitHere.net/D. Knowles - [www.ExitHere.net](http://www.ExitHere.net)  
RoadsideAmerica.com - [www.roadsideamerica.com](http://www.roadsideamerica.com)  
Lucille's - [route66clicks.com](http://route66clicks.com)  
Ken Turmel - [route66postmarkart.com](http://route66postmarkart.com)  
Mother Road Photo Collection - [www.themotherroad.com/gallery/](http://www.themotherroad.com/gallery/)  
Jim & Dan's - [oasis.fortunecity.com/paradise/180/](http://oasis.fortunecity.com/paradise/180/)  
Cruisin' Route 66 - [www.cruisinroute66.com](http://www.cruisinroute66.com)  
Ariston Cafe - [www.ariston-cafe.com](http://www.ariston-cafe.com)  
Midpoint Cafe - [www.midpoint66.com](http://www.midpoint66.com)  
Museum Club - [www.museumclub.com](http://www.museumclub.com)  
Route 66/Area 51 - [astro4.ast.vill.edu/66/ok.htm](http://astro4.ast.vill.edu/66/ok.htm)  
Martin's Route 66 - [www.lastbandit.com/rte66pix.html](http://www.lastbandit.com/rte66pix.html)  
Postcards from the Road - [www.PostcardsFromTheRoad.net](http://www.PostcardsFromTheRoad.net)  
Doc's Route 66 - [www.geocities.com/MotorCity/Downs/4466/](http://www.geocities.com/MotorCity/Downs/4466/)  
Rt. 66 License Plates - [www.route66products.com](http://www.route66products.com)  
Rt. 66 Image Collection - [www.sightandsound.com/route66.html](http://www.sightandsound.com/route66.html)  
66 Diner - [www.66diner.com/juke\\_f.htm](http://www.66diner.com/juke_f.htm)  
US Highway Signs - [www.ugcs.caltech.edu/%7Ejlin/signs/](http://www.ugcs.caltech.edu/%7Ejlin/signs/)  
Resolute Route 66 - [home.earthlink.net/~resolute](http://home.earthlink.net/~resolute)  
Roy's Motel & Cafe - [www.rt66roys.com/](http://www.rt66roys.com/)  
Roadside Peek - [www.roadsidepeek.com/](http://www.roadsidepeek.com/)  
Shellee Graham - [home.earthlink.net/~shellee66/sg.html](http://home.earthlink.net/~shellee66/sg.html)  
66 Drive-In - [www.ComeVisit.com/66drivein/](http://www.ComeVisit.com/66drivein/)  
Colonel 66 - [www.Route-66.com](http://www.Route-66.com)  
Annual Rt. 66 Bike Rally - [www.hhjm.com/66](http://www.hhjm.com/66)  
Quantrill's 66 - [www.quantrill.com/Route66.shtml](http://www.quantrill.com/Route66.shtml)  
Route 66 USA - [www.route66usa.com](http://www.route66usa.com)  
Route 66 Place - [www.route66place.com](http://www.route66place.com)  
Rt. 66 Videos - [www.pacomfilms.com/films/route66.html](http://www.pacomfilms.com/films/route66.html)  
Mock Turtle Press - [www.mockturtlepress.com](http://www.mockturtlepress.com)  
Skip Curtis - [www.birthplaceofroute66.com](http://www.birthplaceofroute66.com)  
Route 66 Trading Post - [www.route66tradingpost.com](http://www.route66tradingpost.com)